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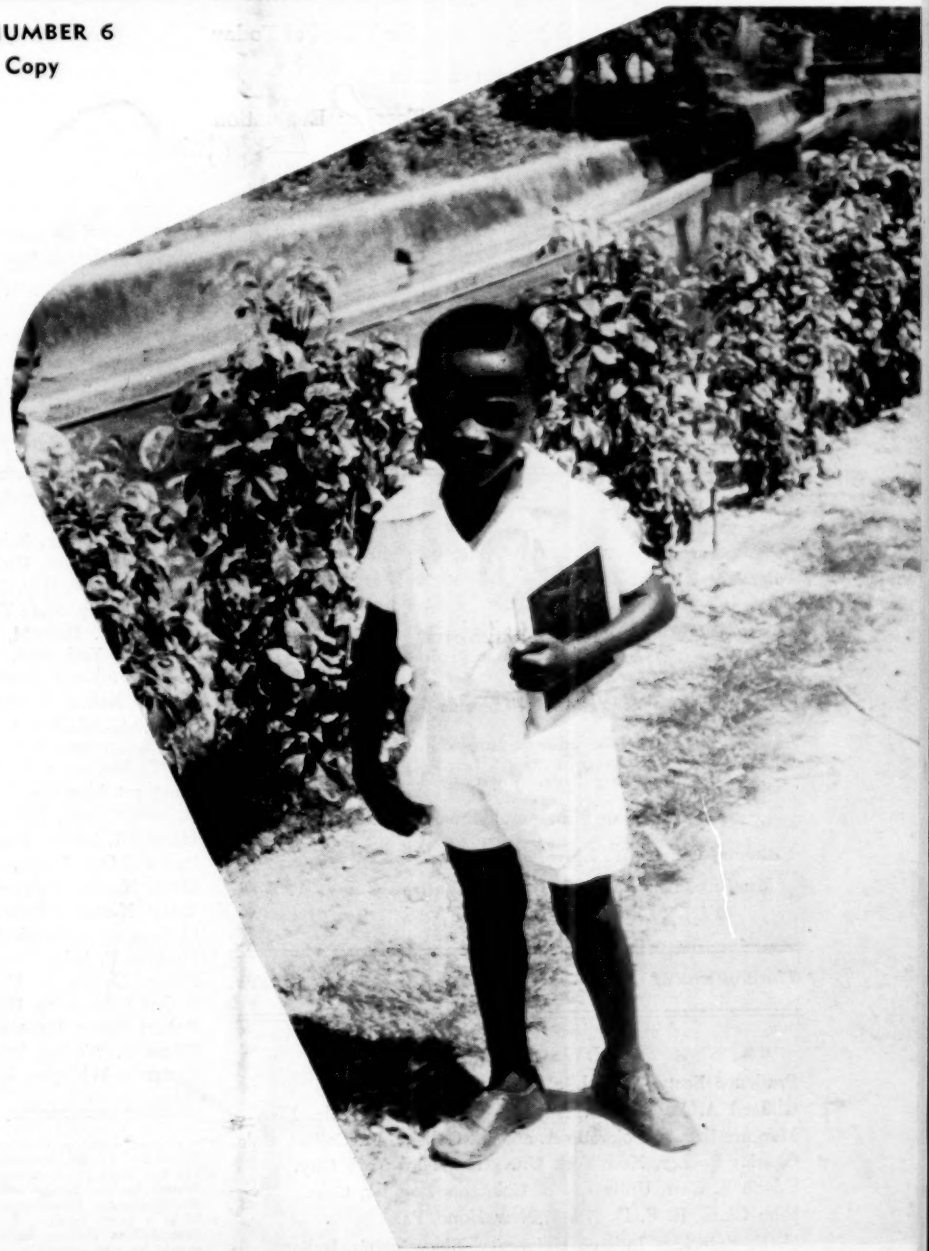

AMERICA'S OLDEST MAGAZINE FOR EDUCATORS

JOURNAL of EDUCATION

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CONTENTS **page**

Occupations Unlimited . . . . . *Beulah Helen Beers* 1
Utilizing the Community in Teaching Science . . . . . *Grace Bristol Coffin* 2
Old World Backgrounds and the World of Today . . . . . *Jonathon C. McLendon* 5
Eye Catching Bulletin Boards . . . . . *Isabelle Marentz* 7
Acceptability—A Factor in Teacher Evaluation . . . . . *Everett G. Thistle* 8
An Audio-Visual Curriculum . . . . . *Roy DeVerl Willey* 11
Improving Social Studies Textbooks . . . . . *Dorothy McClure Fraser* 16
About Our Authors 19
Research 20
Materials 23
New Books 25
Try-It 27

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Transportation can often be arranged by school bus. Ours is. Though that is not the only method, it does have the advantage that the problems of insurance and legal liability are automatically covered. While safety considerations depend largely upon what kind of a trip is planned, we can be sure that some planning for safety measures will always be necessary.

Timing and scheduling are the items in which teachers in the non-departmentalized elementary classroom have the advantage over us in our departmentalized junior high school. At least you have a large block of time with your class. Our science period is forty-seven minutes, and it cannot be lengthened without having pupils miss other classes which they may consider, and certainly other teachers do consider, every bit as important as science. But some things we can do even in forty-seven minutes. When we study a unit on rocks and minerals, we can observe the use of earth materials in construction, such as brick and concrete, granite steps and foundations, and a slate roof. We may find the right day to go out and observe the kind of clouds, the speed and direction of the wind, and perhaps measure dew point or relative humidity. We can find at least a dozen kinds of trees within two or three blocks of the school, and since many of our youngsters think there are just two kinds, trees and Christmas trees, it is worthwhile to study a few more varieties. I have thought every year that when big loose flakes of snow fall gently without wind, I would like to take classes out with pieces of dark cloth and small hand magnifiers to study the infinite variety of those marvelous lacy crystals. So far that kind of snow has never seemed to fall at a time when we could take advantage of it.

Sometimes with a lucky break in scheduling, a class meeting the first or last period of the day, or just before or after lunch, has managed a more extensive trip. The central telephone office has been visited, also the water works where river water is made safe for the city supply. A dairyman only a few blocks from the school has always welcomed classes and shown them the entire process of milk treatment. He maintained his own testing laboratory, which greatly interested some students, and all were interested in the treat of ice cream cones with which he ended the tour. Now he has sold the dairy business and is storing and marketing frozen foods, so we have to do some replanning for our trips.

Just down the street is a florist who has a number of large greenhouses. Since some of us took a little trouble to see that his young son did not fall behind in his school work when he was out of school with a broken leg, the greenhouses are practically ours to command.

Perhaps the best trip that my classes have made was a visit to an electric power plant. Does it sound too desperately risky to take thirty lively seventh graders into a power house handling 110,000 volts? It was done, and with no accidents or near-tragedies. It came about because a number of exceptional students became interested in and demanded some work with electricity. Material on electricity is quite limited in our seventh grade texts, but with the help of the library, and some current periodicals, a unit was prepared for the class. It turned out to be a sort of combination textbook, workbook, and lab manual. The

Convenient laboratory—dozens of kinds of trees can be found within a few blocks of your school.

pupils worked in groups under their own leaders, and for the most part did very well. The trip to the power house was suggested as the culminating activity of the unit. Since in this case the safety angle was so important a consideration, we arranged for the electrical engineer to meet with the group in our own classroom the day before the trip, and talk with us about the things we must and must not do. Of course, we insisted upon signed permits from parents for every pupil that went, and we took enough parents with us to count one adult for every eight pupils. We were taken to see the long switchboard, the huge generators, the shafts of the water wheels spinning with their incredible smooth speed, and outdoors to see the big dam and the wires looking so inocuous and yet carrying the power to light a city and turn the wheels of industry. We would have liked to have had more time.

Not to be overlooked as an available resource is the neighborhood grocery store or market. Questions concerning food sanitation and sanitary laws may be answered there. The study of health brings us to the necessity of a varied diet, and the grocery shelves are loaded with the evidence of what science has done for us in that respect by the invention of canning, bottling, quick freezing and refrigerated transportation. My eighth grade classes have just been working on a unit on buying. Nowhere more than here do we need to develop the scientific attitudes of evaluating statements, seeking dependable information, and suspending judgment until the facts are available. Maybe the youngsters would rather consider the buying of automobiles and television sets, but show them a candy bar that has, wrapped with it, a piece of heavy cardboard at least a half inch longer and wider than the candy, and they are likely to become interested in getting the most for their money in smaller purchases. Then, of course, we need to know what useful facts are found on labels, whether the "big economy package" really is an economy, and a host of other things

(Continued on next page)

about packaging, advertising and selling. These projects may be worked out as a trip for a whole class, or better perhaps from the storekeeper's viewpoint at least, the problems may be assigned as individual or committee projects.

Except for a collection belonging to the historical society, we don't have a museum, unless you can call our town a natural history museum as it stands. There are yards and lawns and gardens and some small parks, and every child that comes to our school sees trees and grass, garden flowers in season, and plenty of weeds in the vacant lots. This year we used a leaf chart as an approach procedure to the fall nature study unit. It was a game to name trees from the shape of their leaves. Scouts did better than others, but only two in the seventh grade could name them all. Then drawings of some of the same and other leaves were found in the textbook, and some reading matter on identifying trees. Evergreens were brought into the discussion by pointing out those in the ornamental plantings on the grounds and asking questions that brought out comparisons with the deciduous trees we had been studying. Cones were mentioned, but these trees didn't have any. The next day volunteers were unloading cones and twigs on my desk, and by the second day the bulletin board and window sills were covered.

Since we wanted to study seeds at the season when they were plentiful, I asked how many kinds they had noticed while gathering leaves, and how many they thought they could collect. In one division a boy suggested a contest to see who could collect the most kinds in one week. The best collection included seventy-four kinds, plus a necklace made of seeds polished and strung. In other divisions we had cotton seeds brought in to see if we could grow them in our terrarium, a dish garden with flower seeds growing on a moist sponge, and many good seed collections. Several people started orange and grapefruit seeds at home, and a boy cherished one bean plant in a can over the kitchen sink. Many a home garden, pantry, and refrigerator were ransacked for vegetable and flower seeds, celery and mustard from the spice shelf, and the seeds of the pears, apples and grapes, the breakfast prunes and the pumpkin pies.

Down in Maine, we talk about seed potatoes, meaning the tubers that are of a quality to be saved and cut up in the spring to plant for the new crop. I think I shall have to start a potato farm to convince my students that a chunk cut off the side of a table potato is not a seed. (Can you grow potatoes in a window box?) At this point, however, they enjoy the story of Luther Burbank and his one potato seed pod, and when we try to find out how the plant forms its seeds, some of the Burbank feats of artificial cross-pollination are like a tale of magic. In fact, the seeds that are so common everywhere make a good starting point for several lines of study. How plants form their seeds can take you through the process of fertilization to some of the simple facts of heredity from two parent plants. Or the question of where the food comes from, that the plant stores in the seeds, may lead to the process of photosynthesis, basis of all life on the earth.

Sometimes, of course, objects and ideas that we have never thought of or planned for, come in out of the blue. If these can be exploited toward acceptable science goals, it is legitimate and indeed highly desirable to do so. I have in mind a group of boys, good readers, who got interested in astronomy and were looking for articles in current magazines. One morning three of them arrived in considerable excitement. "Some men have been to the moon!" They were sure it was fact. I was skeptical. They produced the magazine. The headline, in letters an inch high, said, "Rocket to the Moon." There were pictures, too. But the next line, somewhat smaller, read, "Man may travel to earth's satellite within 25 years." We did spend some time that we had not planned to spend that way, but I think it was worth it. We read every word of the article. We marked all the places where it said, "Sometime in the future—" "Scientists estimate within twenty-five years—" and "Something like this will perhaps be used—." We tried to see the difference between an imaginative drawing and an actual photograph. It was only one experience, but if we can help our pupils make even a small start on the intelligent evaluation of the flood of information and misinformation pouring from the presses of the world, we shall have given them a useful tool for living.

This article has announced no new principles, no startling truths, no methods that claim to be panaceas. It is based upon principles that we have long known. It only tries to suggest a few ways to apply the old principles, such as variety, surprise, use of the eye as well as the ear, pupil participation, and reality of experience, to the learning process. If we can use imagination, seek the possibilities that lie all around us, and make the best use of our pupils' ideas as well as our own, we can make science the most fascinating subject, to learn and to teach, in the curriculum.

OUR cover picture this month shows a little Jamaican boy on his way* home from school. *The picture is by Mrs. L. M. Woodruff of Belmont, Mass. She was quite taken with this little fellow, as you will be too, and was particularly impressed by the fact that all the other children were just as spick and span as he. How many of your pupils could wear white and come home as crisply fresh as this?

Old World Backgrounds and the World of Today

By Jonathon C. McLendon

Study of Old World, or European backgrounds for American history gives pupils their first and often only extended contact with histories of peoples outside America. Large numbers of pupils drop out of school after the sixth or seventh grade. A majority of those remaining in school do not take world history in the senior high school. Clearly, then, the teacher of Old World backgrounds, takes on a major responsibility in helping future citizens to construct a clear and meaningful picture of the past and its relationships to the world of today. The critical urgency of world affairs today underscores the need for teachers to help pupils relate the past to the present.

Is the Contemporary World Neglected?

The very nature of the Old World backgrounds course discourages attention to the contemporary world. The typical textbook or course of study leaves the pupil in the middle of the ocean with a sixteenth-century explorer. Would it be surprising if the pupil concluded, consciously or otherwise, that the rest of the world ceased making history after America was discovered?

Modern instructional materials for use in teaching Old World backgrounds have many merits, but they scarcely touch upon significant relationships between the past and present. Although they are attractive and interesting, the available textbooks give scant notice to the world of today. Many teachers of Old World backgrounds attempt to acquaint their pupils with the contemporary world through current events papers, discussions, or news reports. It is only by chance that pupils come to see the relationships between current events thus treated and the history they are studying.

Use of pertinent contemporary affairs in a history class helps to enrich, enliven, and vitalize the historical affairs taught. It is both logically and psychologically sound to introduce a current item or topic into the study of history at the time when related historical materials are taught. It is easier to follow this plan if current affairs are thought to include contemporary problems and issues and not limited to day-by-day incidents. Thus current affairs constitute highly important aspects of the social world in which we live.

How To Do It

This article tells how ten selected topics in Old World backgrounds can be related to the present-day world. Most teachers of Old World backgrounds teach these ten historical events, trends, and movements. Teachers may adapt each of the suggested teaching procedures and associated learning activities to relating still other historical and current events. The procedures described are given as examples. Many more possibilities will occur to the alert teacher.

Egypt's river valley. Learning about the pervasive influence of the Nile River on life in ancient Egypt may be fostered by construction of a sand table or other model of the river. Such a model would show the source of the Nile, its cataracts, and the navigable portions of the river. Pupils may learn about similarities and differences in the influences of rivers on life then and now by modeling the course of a river in the region of their homes. Information on river courses, dams, watersheds, and areas irrigated may be obtained from federal offices of the Department of the Interior, the Army Engineers, state and local government agencies, or local electric power companies.

One bone of contention between Egypt and Britain consists of control of the headwaters of the Nile in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. The teacher might well explain to the class the present struggle involving this historical river. A helpful article or two dealing with this issue can be located through the *Readers Guide* in the library.

Mesopotamian buildings. Pupil interest in and understanding of the buildings of the ancient Babylonians may develop from comparing those buildings with present-day skyscrapers. Besides the descriptive information available in history books and encyclopedias, appropriate pictures will also serve to illustrate large buildings of now and long ago. Photographs of ruins and reconstructions of Babylonian buildings can be obtained from such sources as *National Geographic Magazine*, the book *They Wrote on Clay*, and the Metropolitan Museum of Art (New York).

Peoples of Palestine. When they study about the Hebrews and other peoples of ancient Bible lands, pupils should have an opportunity to learn also of the modern nation of Israel. Perhaps the most useful material for teaching about the old land of Palestine and the new consists of appropriate maps. Advanced world history textbooks, encyclopedias, historical atlases, and recently printed gazeteers contain maps needed for this purpose.

Democracy in ancient Athens. The beginnings of some of our western ways of democratic government can be found in the story of democracy in ancient Athens. Pupils will profit from making charts that compare Athenian and American democracy. Such charts might illustrate the organization of the chief agencies of government or the qualifications for citizenship. Encyclopedias and other reference books should supply sufficient information to supplement the textbook. The charts may be made on poster-size cardboard, the blackboard, notebook paper, or typing or drawing paper.

Recreation in ancient Rome. The ways of city life in ancient Rome receive considerable attention in Old World backgrounds courses. Here is another opportunity for pupils to compare ways of living in ancient times with the present. Recreation was one important phase of city life in ancient Rome as it is in urban America today. Pupils will enjoy gathering from old magazines pictures of ways in which people enjoy life today. Such picture collections constitute material for scrapbooks, in which at least the better artists of the class can insert their own drawings of recreational scenes in ancient Rome. Other pupils may compare the pictures they collect with the textbook illustrations of Roman recreational activities and facilities.

Roman law and citizenship. Perhaps the greatest gifts of the Romans to civilization were their governmental organization, administration, and laws. Pupils can appreciate more fully the nature of both Roman citizenship and American citizenship through a comparison of the two. For this purpose, a visiting speaker who can talk understandably to children may be the best resource. A lawyer or a high school or college teacher of government may be invited to talk to the class on "Rights of Citizens in Ancient Rome and in Modern America."

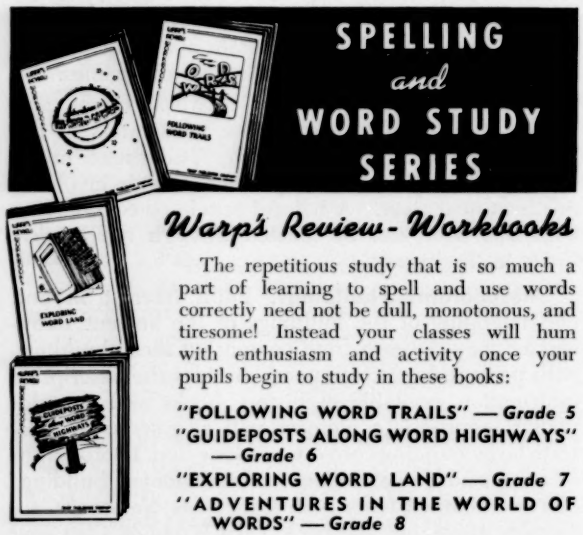
Farming in feudal times. It is often difficult for children in prosperous America to appreciate the hard life of the peasants in medieval times. The desired understanding may be attained through dramatization of the problems involved in farming then and now. After study of medieval farm life, one group of pupils may be asked to enact extemporaneously a scene in which a group of peasants is taken to the fields by the noble's overseer. The conversation could deal with tools and methods of farming, crops grown, living conditions of the farm workers, and pay for the work done.

A second scene, enacted best perhaps by another group of pupils, could deal with the same aspects of modern farming. This scene might portray a farm owner or manager instructing his hired helpers in the tasks to be done one day. To enact this scene pupils should be chosen who have had experience on farms or those with knowledge from previously arranged reading about modern farming.

Manufacturing — medieval and modern. The most easily identifiable changes in ways of living during the world's history have been technological changes. Pupils will develop more appreciation of both medieval and modern technology through comparison of manufacturing processes in each period. Working individually or in small groups, pupils can construct posters that illustrate, first, an artisan with apprentices making a product in his home, and second, the making of a comparable product in a modern factory. Such products as cloth, hats, and shoes would serve well for these posters.

Renaissance times. The invention of the movable-type printing press during the Renaissance greatly improved communication. There have been numerous significant improvements since. Pupils may come to realize more fully the extent of these changes by listing in parallel columns ways of communicating in the fifteenth century and in the twentieth century. Some items, such as "messengers," "conversation," and "letters" will appear on both lists. "Telegraph," "magazines," and "television," will appear only on the longer list for the twentieth century. The teacher may wish each pupil to make his own list while the class discusses the means of communication. Or it may be preferable to make a list on the blackboard for the class. It would be worthwhile to emphasize not only the many additional means of communication, but also the improvements that have occurred in older methods —in the volume, safety, and inexpensiveness of letters, for example.

(Continued on page 28)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Eye Catching Bulletin Boards

By Isabelle Marentz

Bulletin boards are the show cases of your classroom. They display your wares. Whether anyone stops to look at them depends upon what you show and how you present it.

Two of the most common faults with bulletin boards are lack of arrangement and its opposite, precision arrangement. Perhaps you say, "How can both of these be faults? If one is poor then the other must be good." However, the element for an eye catching bulletin is lacking in both. This element is the thing that "hits you in the eye."

The bulletin board that includes papers tacked up helter-skelter without planning and design is a jumbled mass and offers nothing to the viewer nor does it add anything to the appearance of the room. At the other extreme is the bulletin board arranged with military precision, so precisely that your eye glides over it and misses the point of the display. This type of bulletin board does have an advantage over the helter-skelter arrangement since it does present some sense of order, but it becomes uninteresting background.

Another stereotyped bulletin is the one that displays twenty or twenty-five papers from the same lesson. I realize that each parent is interested in the work of his own child and is anxious to have his child's work displayed. If you must have this type of bulletin board occasionally, organize it so that it will have some focal point either in color or arrangement. But to have this type of bulletin board week after week is a monotonous repetition.

How do you go about arranging an eye catching bulletin board? The three prime requisites are *imagination, arrangement* and *color.* A combination of any two will give you an effective bulletin board.

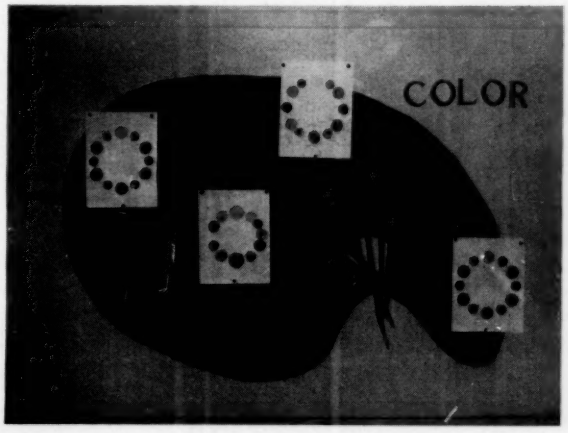
Bulletin Board Background

The quickest way to arrange a bulletin board is to have a background for the display rather than to mount each paper or picture. In this you can let your imagination be your guide. Is your bulletin board about airplanes? Then have an airplane motif as background. Is it transportation? Then perhaps a background of wheels. A writing or spelling bulletin might have large letters cut from colored paper as background. Then there is the abstract (2-3) type of background composed of geometrical figures.

Arrangement

The second ingredient for an attractive bulletin is arrangement. Decide where your center of interest is going to be and start at that point. Just remember that a central balance arrangement isn't the only one. Try arranging a bulletin board with the focal point off center. Let your background carry the eye along. The center of interest might be in one corner (4), in both corners or in diagonal corners (5), or just anywhere you wish. The more you have on a bulletin board, the less the eye can take in. Don't crowd the display. Empty space serves a purpose; it emphasizes the display.

Everything on your bulletin board need not be flat. Let 3-D invade your classroom and a good place to start is on the bulletin board. Is your bulletin about books? Then why not have the form of a book tacked at right angles to the board? Is a maypole to be the background? Have the streamers made out of twisted crepe paper. Is it a Christmas tree or Santa with his pack that is the center of interest? Then make the tree from several layers of paper and use strings of cranberries or popcorn and tiny ornaments to decorate it. Santa's pack could bulge with mysterious packages and small toys peeping out of the top. Make your bulletin board one that children will want to touch as well as see.



Color Serves a Purpose

Color is the third factor of an attractive bulletin board. Have you ever tried a checkerboard background? Any two appropriate colors creates an interesting checkerboard design (6). Let the color used reflect the theme of the display. In winter black and white are effective for snow background. Blue and white can be used as a variation. Green is good during the spring season as are orange and brown at Thanksgiving. I used red and white effectively for papers written to describe heat.

(Continued on page 26)

Acceptability -- A Factor in Teacher Evaluation

By Everett G. Thistle

During the past half century a great deal of research in the area of teacher evaluation has been carried on, many articles have appeared in the educational literature, and many communities have established programs for determining teacher competence. Despite the many suggestions which have been made and the materials which have been developed in this period, there has come no widespread application of these proposals. In fact, many endeavors to determine teacher effectiveness have resulted in great controversy and all too often have disrupted the morale in the school systems concerned.

Efforts toward measuring the effectiveness of teachers or of teaching have seemed to indicate a weakness in teaching as a profession. This drawback to the development of acceptable means of evaluation of teacher effectiveness is the lack of confidence or faith exhibited by many educators toward those with whom they work. Whether justified or not, this failure to trust in the integrity of one's associates has hamstrung attempts to make teacher evaluation a functional concept.

Fairness the Foundation of Acceptance

The faith and confidence, which are in many cases now of doubtful existence, will develop into positive factors as the area of understanding grows. Suggestions for teacher evaluation must be examined and appraised continually to determine the extent to which they may contribute to understanding and mutual acceptance which is the key to satisfying the need for faith in the honesty and sincerity of those who administer personnel policies.

No program for determining teacher effectiveness can succeed unless the people involved are convinced that the program is fair to all. The crux of the problem would seem to be acceptability. The success of any program for teacher evaluation, for either supervision or salary, depends upon the extent to which the elements of that program are acceptable to those concerned with it, i.e., those being evaluated, those doing the evaluating, and school patrons.

In many cases the degree of acceptance is contingent upon the avowed purpose of the evaluation. The variance of acceptability depends upon the nature of the purpose, evaluation for supervisory purposes only or evaluation as a determiner of salary. Most teachers would be willing to share in a program of evaluation characterized by efforts to make more effective their activities as teachers. Few teachers will deny the possibility of obtaining help from a formal consideration of the extent to which their activities are producing the results which may be desired. On the other hand, these same teachers may react violently to a proposal relating their salary to their competence, even though the salary evaluation is carried out in the same manner as that for supervision.

The degree of acceptability for many teachers is also dependent upon the standard used for evaluation. Measuring a teacher's effectiveness against a predetermined standard or criterion would be accepted in most cases. Measuring a teacher's effectiveness with

Table 1. Degree of Acceptability of Personal Characteristics Proposed for Evaluation

Personal Characteristics	Degree of Acceptability		
	Teachers	Staff Members	Lay People
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Habits of work	84	86	82
Physical well-being	83	83	80
Emotional stability	93	94	97
Appearance	67	79	75
Attitude toward work	93	93	92
Breadth of interests and talents	78	79	76
Dependability	91	94	92
Cooperation	89	93	89
Sense of proportion	82	82	82
Sense of humor	80	79	75
Adaptability	89	86	85

Table 2. Degree of Acceptability of Measures of a Teacher's Effectiveness

Measures of Effectiveness	Degree of Acceptability		
	Teachers	Staff Members	Lay People
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Class progress, objectively measured	77	79	80
Use of new methods	71	74	71
Providing for individual differences	88	90	88
General instructional skill	91	91	90
Control of physical conditions	68	70	66
Economy of supplies and property	60	63	60
Clerical efficiency	60	61	50
Discipline	92	92	92
Sharing school responsibility	68	88	83
Contributing to "esprit de corps"	82	86	83
Extra-curricular activities	63	70	67
Contributing to community progress	67	70	70
Activity in professional groups	66	71	64
Enriching community life	66	69	71
Sensitivity to public reaction	68	71	68
Cooperation with laymen in school planning	68	70	74
Leadership of children in non-school activities	59	73	68

reference to some other teacher, however, involves a personal comparison. The suggestion that some other teacher is "better" or "best" is one which is hard to accept. It should be borne in mind that both the purpose of the evaluation and the form of the evaluation are important considerations in determining the degree of their acceptability.

Purpose and Plan of the Study

The study on which this report is based endeavored to determine the "degree of acceptability" of proposals which have already been advanced, some formalized through use in a particular situation and others presented for consideration in the educational literature. The purpose of the study was not to build a rating scale or checklist to aid in the evaluation of teachers. Rather, the concern was with the reactions of a sampling of teachers, administrators, and lay people to possible measures and methods of evaluation, these reactions to guide those who would develop a program.

An examination of the literature on evaluation and rating and the materials developed by local groups throughout the country revealed many measures and methods which had been used or had been suggested for determining competence in the field of education. The measures and methods discovered were through this examination organized for use in an inquiry form and later submitted to a population consisting of 2,132 teachers, staff members other than teachers, and lay people in 30 Massachusetts communities. The communities participating ranged in size from under 5,000 population to over 30,000 population. Twenty of the communities reported as having some form of merit-salary program and ten communities were without such a program.

A random sampling of one third of the teachers in each community was selected. The group of "Staff Members Other Than Teachers" for the study was made up of the superintendents, supervisors, principals, directors, and assistants to the superintendent. The lay people in the study were selected on the basis of their contact and interest in the schools and on the basis of an awareness of the financial aspects of programs for relating salary to competence. These school patrons taking part in the study were school committee members, presidents of parent-teacher associations, and the leaders of the local groups of these organizations: Chamber of Commerce, Kiwanis Club, Lions Club, Rotary Club.

Usable inquiry forms were returned by 1,498 respondents. This total represented 958 Teachers, 298 Staff Members Other Than Teachers, and 242 Lay People. The data obtained have been interpreted in terms of the acceptability of methods and measures of evaluation to each of these groups. The results reported below are incomplete and have been modified so as to be representative of the findings in the study.

The first question in the inquiry form requested the respondents to evaluate on the scale certain personal characteristics for use in determining a teacher's effectiveness. Table 1 expresses the reactions of the 1,498 respondents to these characteristics.

The indices for each of the groups show "Emotional stability" to have the highest degree of acceptability as a personal characteristic for teacher evalua-

tion with the Lay People assigning an index of 97* out of a possible 100 points of acceptability. "Appearance" was the least acceptable as a measure of a teacher's effectiveness. Each of the three groups in the investigation ranked the following items in first, second, or third position: Emotional stability, Attitude toward work, and Dependability.

The degree of acceptability of other measures of a teacher's effectiveness is shown in Table 2. Teachers, Staff Members, and Lay People have indicated that "Discipline" with an index of 92 is most acceptable as a measure of a teacher's effectiveness. "Discipline" was followed closely by "General instructional skill" and "Providing for individual differences."

Teachers considered "Leadership of children in non-school activities" as least acceptable. "Clerical efficiency" and "Economy of supplies and property" were low in acceptability to each of the three groups concerned. With Lay People "Clerical efficiency" had an index of acceptability of only 50. The item of "Sharing school responsibility" was significantly lower in acceptability by Teachers than by Staff Members or Lay People.

Personnel Records for Teachers

A recent suggestion for improving the program of evaluation is the use of a cumulative record folder for teachers. Table 3 shows the degree of acceptability of items which have been suggested for placement in such a personnel record folder. Overall the indices of acceptability of these items were lower than for the items in Tables 1 and 2. "Reports of special methods or materials developed" was most acceptable to each of the groups of respondents. Of least acceptability were "Reports of community activities undertaken by the teacher," "Reports on extra-curricular activities."

Table 4 shows the degree of acceptability of certain time allotments as the minimum amount of time necessary to judge teacher effectiveness. Lay People were not asked to respond to this item in the inquiry form. It should be noted that the 1,256 responses from the Teachers and Staff Members were spread over five items and that the sum of the indices of acceptability would be 100.

The index of acceptability of "Some part and some full periods" was twice as high as that of the second ranked item, "Several full periods." The index of acceptability to Staff Members was higher than to Teachers for the item "Some part and some full periods." This item was selected by a majority of the Staff Members responding. The smallest time block was considered by each of the groups as being least acceptable. To be acceptable to Teachers or Staff Members considerable time must be spent in making a judgment of a teacher's effectiveness.

(Continued on page 28)

Table 3. Degree of Acceptability of Items Suggested for Placement in a Personnel Record Folder

Items Suggested for Personnel Record Folder	Degree of Acceptability		
	Teachers	Staff Members	Lay People
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Reports of supervisory observations	73	80	81
Records of further study	69	68	74
Records of committee work	60	63	59
Reports on extra-curricular activities	56	59	56
Standard test records of classes taught	64	66	80
Reports of community activities undertaken by the teacher	53	56	59
Reports of special methods or materials developed	73	75	77

Table 4. Degree of Acceptability as the Minimum Amount of Time Necessary to Judge Teaching

Amount of Time	Degree of Acceptability	
	Teachers	Staff Members
(1)	(2)	(3)
Less than class period	4	3
Full class period	5	5
Several part periods	17	14
Several full periods	24	24
Some part and some full periods	49	54

An Audio-Visual Curriculum

By Roy DeVerl Willey

As one examines the trends in audio-visual education he is impressed with the ever-increasing number of sound motion pictures appropriated and used in the improvement of learning conditions. Significant as this increase of expenditure is, however, an even more important trend is the integration of audio-visual materials within the curriculum. Audio-visual materials are neither something to be added to the curriculum nor something to elicit a revolutionary change in school methods. Furthermore, they should not be considered as media of entertainment or diversion when the children become restless and unruly. Rapidly becoming an essential member of school personnel, the audio-visual director works closely with the curriculum director, or as a member of the curriculum director's staff. Throughout the nation audio-visual materials are included in the courses of study, and emphasis is granted to their primary purpose—improving the end-products of learning.

Significant, too, is the trend of producing filmstrips, motion pictures and textbook material conjointly, each intended to complement or supplement the other. Every month instructors are finding a wide variety of additional audio-visual materials from which to choose for help in teaching music, art, literature, social studies, mathematics, and science. No longer is it necessary or advisable to crowd pupils from all grade levels into an auditorium to be exposed to several motion pictures in one afternoon. We are discovering that it is increasingly easy to select films which will help us teach what is still called by many "the intangibles," that is, attitudes of democratic tolerance and cooperation, appreciations, and spiritual and moral values. Teachers who in the past may have hesitated to include in their plans such psycho-social objectives as human relations, the elimination of prejudice, and better understanding of human differences, are now finding help by means of the radio, filmstrip and motion picture.

Furthermore, films are helping teachers accomplish objectives which formerly seemed formidable; specifically, principles of mental health in the form of desirable patterns of emotional development. Films regarding shyness, temper tantrums, and feelings of rejection may lead to congenial and effective discussion between the students and the teacher. Definite help for the poorly adjusted and confused pupils may result. For the first time, too, children are offered opportunities to hear their own voices and to see themselves in a motion picture. They are now able to see themselves as others see them—to gain something of a perspective about themselves. Accordingly, they may be motivated to re-examine and improve their attitudes, voices, postures, and social deportment.

From trends in audio-visual education we have selected one for emphasis in this article: The integration of audio-visual materials within the curriculum.

Curriculum is the Total of School Experience

It is convenient to regard a child as a dynamic force always in motion—an energy system continuously interacting with other energy systems which comprise the child's environment. From the environment stimuli are continuously acting upon the sense organs and the responses made to them may be regarded as attempts to maintain dynamic equilibrium. When the child responds to a stimulus, the behavior is a result of a reorganization in terms of present demand.

The child learns because he acts in response to the satisfaction of basic needs. The acts may be considered as experience and are educative when a relationship has been perceived between the *doing* and the *undergoing. Curriculum is the sum total of those experiences which fall under the direct or indirect supervision of the school.*

Curriculum is Based Upon Life's Needs

Education has shifted from a process of learning about certain prescribed areas of subject-matter to a process of integration which all children must accomplish if they are to perform effectively in present and future life-situations. Abundant opportunity must be made available in and out of school to engage in activities which will help children to solve their specific problems.

The selection of materials, the control of activities, and the guidance of thought and action in the learning situation should all be governed by a long-range developmental point of view. Essential to intelligent teaching is an over-all picture of growth and development. Our knowledge about human behavior can be organized around the concept of developmental tasks common to all members of a social group. The concept applies equally to adulthood and old age as well as to early childhood or adolescence.

The life-needs of an individual have frequently been stated in terms of "developmental tasks." These tasks are necessary learnings which must be learned within restricted time periods if a satisfactory adjustment is to be made. The tasks of a given age-period define the chief concerns and the main motivation of this period. The accomplishment of them involves varied types of learnings such as concepts, skills, attitudes and ideals. An audio-visual curriculum should

help the child to attain the goals he is seeking rapidly, easily, and satisfyingly.

The developmental tasks of an individual are set by the expectancies and pressures of society which may be designated as cultural patterns, and by the changes that take place in the physical organism that propel the individual to seek new kinds of inter-personal relations. The onset of puberty usually impels a boy, for example, to become interested in a girl. At first he may attempt to attract attention from the girl by whistling, talking loudly, and even pushing or shoving—all types of behavior traditionally disapproved of by school teachers. Because of social pressure from the adult world and peer group, these behaviorisms become modified. Cultural expectancies are what the child's family, his teacher, his chums, his scout master, or his Sunday School teacher attempt to get him to do. Implicitly they say, "If you wish us to approve you, and to be accepted you must change." To change from childhood behavior to more mature behavior is, therefore, a task of adolescence. Social skills must be learned, skills such as dancing or game-playing must be acquired, emancipation from parents must be accomplished, heterosexual adjustment must occur, and emotional maturity must be established.

The current trend in curriculum patterns is to organize the curriculum into broad areas as contrasted with the numerous subject organization so familiar to the older teachers of our day. Five areas, for example, are commonly found in modern curriculum outlines: (1) physical and mental health, (2) requirements for desirable living in a social world, (3) communicating ideas, (4) science and mathematics, and (5) satisfaction of esthetic needs.

Another illustrative pattern is the "life-needs" areas. For example, in terms of life needs that are encountered in daily activities and problems found in the home, school, and community the curriculum may have been organized into eight basic areas as follows:

PHYSICAL WELFARE: More than four million men were rejected by the armed forces in World War II because of physical and emotional handicaps. We may note with alarm the increasing highway traffic slaughter and uncontrolled drinking. Every pupil is faced with the task of maintaining and building personal health and in seeking enjoyment and release from tensions.

BUILDING DEMOCRATIC RELATIONSHIPS: The menace of Communism, minority group tensions, labor and management difficulties, failure to appreciate our rights and privileges, lack of respect for opinion of others—all point to the need for vigorous experience in democratic practices. The tasks of learning ways of working together and living together face each school child.

DEVELOPING ECONOMIC COMPETENCE: Failure of the schools to accomplish this objective is seen in the large number of vocational misfits and failure of employers and labor to work interdependently toward social and economic welfare or to adapt to technological developments and occupational changes. The correction of these faults is a task for every future citizen. Students must learn to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, learn how to obtain and hold a job, and to match individual ability and interests with the work of the world.

ENJOYING WHOLESOME LEISURE: Some of the common tasks facing the student are: to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature; to use leisure time well and budget it wisely in order to balance activities that yield satisfaction with those that are socially useful. The failure of the school to meet these needs is observable in the increase of uncontrolled drinking, juvenile delinquency, crime, negative influence of movies, television and radio.

SATISFYING RELIGIOUS AND ESTHETIC NEEDS: Pupils need to develop insight into ethical values and principles; to learn to behave as peers expect them to behave; to develop self control, courage, honesty, and stability; to meet one's own personal standards.

FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS: There is a need for understanding the significance of the family; to create conditions conducive to successful family life; to develop mutual responsibility of parents and children; and for children to learn to share their parents' futures and trials. Furthermore, there is need for parents to learn to live together and with their children and to possess the knowledge and means for the economic maintenance of a home. These needs are evident when we consider that nearly half of the families in the United States have no children and that another group have only one child.

THINKING AND COMMUNICATING IDEAS: Children are faced with the tasks of learning the principal scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and men. They must define problems, gather relevant data, formulate hypotheses and test validity and to make wide use of a wide variety of resources in the study of a particular problem and recognize the limitation of a single reference. They need to recognize differences in capacity, achievement, and expectancy; to discover and accept the principles, ideals, and standards of the group; to express thoughts clearly and to read and listen with understanding.

Actually there is an individual curriculum for each child in school. The total of the experiences of any one child under the direction of the school will be different from the sum of the experiences of every other child even though many of the learnings will be common. Let us take one example. All children face the task of avoiding accidents, yet Bill must give special attention to crossing streets because he lives in a

neighborhood of heavy traffic; Mary spends much time on a bicycle so her cautions are of a different nature; her brother, Jack, drives a car and because of faulty depth-perception-vision must make adaptations such as leaving more space between his car and the car in front of him.

Audio-Visual Stimulation

The use of materials and teaching devices which have appeal to the senses will have very little effect on the improvement of learning unless the teacher endorses philosophy of desirable educational theory. Surrounded with the best of modern materials and mechanical equipment, the child or adolescent may be bombarded with factual information requiring the learning product to be processed by memorization. The quality of experience children have determines the quality of learning which takes place. The psychological climate of the classroom can be a far more important factor in quality of the learning product than are the materials of instruction. The dynamics of interpersonal and group action, that is, child-to-child relationships and teacher-pupil relationships, are far more effective in the improvement of learning than is the transfer of information from materials (or from the teacher) to the pupil. Learning is directed and stimulated by the social personal relationships of the school.

The teacher's role in providing favorable learning situations includes a conscious attempt to secure the child's acceptance of the goals, to suggest methods of work, and to provide a variety of materials and activities in the school's curriculum. Inasmuch as a single device or a single group of procedures will not stimulate children or adolescents in the same way a large variety is necessary.

The Significance of Experience as the Curriculum

One morning a young boy announced to his teacher that his father had given him a Shetland Pony for his birthday. "May we come out to your home to see it?" the teacher asked. The boy was delighted at such interest, and the whole class became excited over the prospect of an excursion. The teacher took advantage of such keen interest, and during the discussion in preparing for the journey she was careful to select words and expressions which she knew would be valuable in later reading instruction. After returning to the schoolroom the pupils talked about what they saw. Pictures of many Shetland ponies were placed on the bulletin board, sentences constructed of carefully selected words were written on the blackboard. The sentences were transferred to a chart, a motion picture was seen, more charts were made and all the while more pupils learned to read. We may call this *on-going* activity an *experience.*

Meaning is an essential element of the experience-situation. It developes because of a dynamic inter-

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action between the child and his environment and during the on-going process the child perceives a relationship between what he is doing and what he expects to accomplish. Meaning also requires foresight regarding the consequences. Education should be concerned with providing and controlling experiences in such a way that full development of the individual in the light of his needs and his capacities will be assured. An example of control is seen in the "experience unit" now frequently found in the school. Such a unit attempts to cut across all subject-matter boundaries, and materials are drawn from all fields when they contribute to the solution of a problem. Control and organization of experiences help the pupil define his purposes, recognize his needs, and to reach specific goals in a safe and efficient manner.

Can We Distinguish Between Firsthand Experience and Vicarious Experience?

Vicarious experience may refer to the understandings a person gains through the recognition of and the interpretation of the direct experiences of another person. Much of our present civilization has been made possible through vicarious experience. When children visited the Shetland Pony cited in a previous paragraph, most of them may be said to have had a firsthand experience. Later when they listened to stories read by the teacher about horses, they enjoyed a vicarious experience. It is difficult to state which of these experiences is the more important. Certainly we cannot make it possible that all school learning be a contribution of a firsthand experience. In fact, most of it is vicarious, that is, children learn by sharing the experiences of others.

It is Superficial to Organize all Experiences from the Concrete to the Abstract

Just as a child may find it an educative experience to use blocks (concrete objects) and toys (models and mock-ups), so may an adult find concrete objects, models, and mock-ups a most valuable aid to his education. Excursions are valuable to the child, but they may also be valuable to the adult. Charts and graphs as curriculum materials may be more frequently used by individuals of adolescence and adulthood, yet these media, too, are educative tools to the child. It is convenient to classify audio-visual materials according to variety rather than possible sequence of utilization.

The learning of an infant progresses because of experiences in the immediate environment. At this stage of development he is particularly dependent upon sensory experiences. He hears footsteps, discomforts are removed, and footsteps become a symbol that comfort is coming. At this early beginning sensory experience is transferring to symbolic meaning. As the child continues life, he learns to identify objects by coming into contact with them. He learns that a ball is round by rolling it, that it is elastic because it bounces, that it has weight because he must lift it, thus the concept grows because of experiences.

A young child is given a toy and hears it called a dog. After an indeterminate interval he sees an object approach and hears it called "dog." Later in a different situation he sees another object and hears it called "dog" also. When riding in the family automobile at still a later interval he shouts "dog" when he sees several cows grazing in a pasture. Immediately he learns this is not the correct response for such large animals. The process of generalization and differentiation continues interchangeably with a visual image and verbal symbol. At length the time arrives when the child has a meaning for the word "dog," but the meaning is never exactly the same for one child as it is for another. Words and sentences or other expression means to the child what it makes him think or feel or do, and these factors are determined by past individual experiences. Nor does the concept remain fixed at any particular level of individual development. A dog to the infant is something different from what a dog is to childhood or to adolescence. Few children see the relationships between the concept of dog and the words "dogwood, dogberry, dogtired, dogweary, and dog-gone-it," and what child would ever see the significance of the concept of a dog as being a quadruped of the Canidae family? Yet individuals of late adolescence or adulthood may have occasion to acquire such a concept.

Words mean only what they represent in our experience. Poverty of words indicates a meagerness of contact with things and persons. Words can convey correct ideas or stimulate their construction. We should not, however, minimize the importance of verbalism. Interchanged and integrated with concrete experience it becomes the most potent of learning media. A child's facility in the use of verbal symbols determines his power to grasp and to reflect upon the experiences he has had. Verbal discussion after an excursion is usually necessary to clear up vague understandings and misconceptions. After visiting a farm, young children talk freely of hatching eggs in incubators, separating milk from cream, and shearing sheep to obtain materials for winter coats and rugs.

It is a fallacy to classify sensory materials in order of their concreteness or abstractness. A motion picture, for example, may be meaningless without verbal symbols, and dramatic participation may be as abstract to the pupil as visualized symbols. Experience with any visual material involves the interchange of the concrete and the abstract. The point at issue is that concreteness or abstractness are matters of degree of meaningfulness. Merely using materials appealing to the senses is insufficient. A further necessary requirement is teacher-guidance toward a precise and extensive language. New words are acquired but frequently specific applications of familiar words need to be made. The primary school should maintain a classroom environment sufficiently stimulating to expand the child's vocabulary and to stretch his language powers. The older child has increased his stock of basic concepts, but the associations may be vague and

(Continued on page 24)

Walk On the Green—For Safety

The deadliest child-killer, the one that takes the lives of more children under 15 than any of the well-known diseases, is traffic.

Traffic accidents killed more than 4,000 children between the ages of 1 and 14 last year–five times as many as by polio, three times as many as by tuberculosis and more than by pneumonia or cancer in all its forms.

Ironically, the cause of traffic deaths has been known since the first auto killed a child. Carelessness causes traffic accidents and safety can prevent them. Expenditures of millions of dollars or experiments on thousands of children are not needed to lower the death rate in traffic accidents. It is simply a problem of educating the motorist and the child to obey the traffic rules governing each.

To make any safety campaign effective we need more than words of admonition or pleas to reason. Parents can't do the entire job nor can the teacher do the total job. It is the child himself who must learn and obey safety rules. Both children and adults in this modern age are peppered with catchy slogans. A child can understand and remember a catchy phrase. In this case it might save his life.

Michigan City, Indiana, turns a slogan into one of the best improvements in traffic control in the last 25 years. It is called "Walk On The Green." In the 1954-55 school year children in this city will walk safely to and from school across intersections painted a bright visible green.

The idea of this safety campaign is to paint the entire length of the crosswalk between the white safety lines a solid bright green paint called SAV-A-CHILD Green. Motorists can see the green a half block away and prepare for a stop. It means a lower accident rate at intersections, fewer jaywalkers halfway up the block, and less traffic congestion from people crossing on the "red."

Mayor Russell Hileman originated the idea in this city in March 1954. He wanted green crosswalks at the downtown crossings so they would tie in with his campaign to have people walk across the street only on the green light. Working with the Traffic Paint Division of the O'Brien Corporation, South Bend, Indiana, Hileman approved a traffic paint that had a bright, nearly luminous color. It could be applied with either a roller or brush and would dry in five minutes.

Mrs. Harvey Rhoda, president of the Michigan City P.T.A. Council, requested an application of the paint at the crossing around the Central Elementary School in that city. In SAFETY EDUCATION magazine, published by the National Safety Council, she writes, "We are thrilled with the results of the tests and feel that every city and P.T.A. should look into this project. It is a wonderful safety idea for protecting our children."

"My reaction," she continued, "is that this idea will save the lives of children, if not in Michigan City then somewhere in the United States. The Michigan City P.T.A. Council feels this is a very wonderful thing to have painted on every crosswalk leading to schools. It has proven successful in our town."

Also commenting on the safety campaign was Captain Lloyd Storey, head of the safety division, Michigan City. He said, "This idea can be of value to children and grown people as well. I know that 'Walk On The Green' is the only way to establish crosswalks in a manner that will continue to protect the pedestrian."

Many cities throughout the United States have already made plans to adopt the campaign in their town. The first reaction came from towns close to Michigan City—LaPorte, Gary and Goshen. The idea leapfrogged into Michigan at Benton Harbor and Lansing. The Michigan State Highway Department gave their approval for the program on any streets maintained by the state. And inquiries have been received as far away as Montclair, New Jersey and Marion, Illinois.

Members of the P.T.A. and other civic organizations throughout the United States are vitally interested and strongly believe the "Walk On The Green" idea will prevent unnecessary traffic deaths involving school children. It can be one of the easiest, most satisfying projects a civic group can adopt. One Saturday morning's work can protect school children for months. The only equipment needed is the paint itself and rollers. The city administration and the police safety committee can provide barriers to block traffic during painting.

The National Safety Council adopted this safety slogan for September: "Watch Out for Kids." Any community can make safety more a reality by stating: "Watch Out for Kids—as They Walk On The Green!"

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Improving Social Studies Textbooks

By Dorothy McClure Fraser

There is available to the teacher who will use it a great variety of educational tools for the social studies classroom. One needs only to consider the wealth of pamphlets, specialized studies, fiction, filmstrips, recordings and movies to realize that this is true. Yet, in a large proportion of our social studies classrooms the textbook is still almost the only resource that is used regularly. The textbook is in more cases than not the practical determiner of the pattern of class procedure and sets the limits of information and ideas available to the students.

Such being the case, it is natural that in our search for ways to improve the quality of instruction, the textbook has attracted particular attention and study within recent years. Specialists in the teaching of social studies have given considerable attention to such topics as "Textbook Selection" and "Using Textbooks" while continuing their efforts to promote a broader concept of social studies instruction. They have also participated in a series of textbook studies, in which selected groups of typical social studies textbooks have been analyzed with a view to encouraging improvements in accuracy and adequate, understandable treatments of particular topics. The criteria used by the analysts were stated, in one form or another, in a manner that allows the reader of the studies to judge for himself the objectivity of the reports. Each book that was analyzed was given a careful over-all examination —lifting bits out of context was avoided. None of the texts included in these studies was publicly identified for praise or blame in the analytical reports that were issued. The purpose of each of these studies was to help authors and publishers to raise the general level of textbook materials with reference to the particular points covered in the studies and not to attack or endorse particular texts.

The textbook studies sponsored by reputable educational groups over the last decade and carried on by persons of recognized competence should not be confused with the postwar wave of condemnations directed at specific social studies textbooks upon presumed ideological bases. There have been a number of incidents in which a particular text has been attacked by virtue of sentences that were lifted out of context, illustrations that were described without reference to the textual discussion that they accompany, and other such biased, incomplete bits of evidence. In these incidents the attackers have been self-appointed censors, some of whom are undoubtedly sincerely patriotic if uninformed and misguided citizens; others have appeared to represent pressure groups working deliberately to stifle free discussion in our schools. School people, educational publishers, and all other citizens interested in improving the quality of public education should join together to prevent further repetition of such incidents.* Meanwhile, the efforts of professional social studies educators for the general improvement of textbooks in their field are continuing.

Early Textbook Studies

Almost a half century ago, the distinguished historian Albert Bushnell Hart turned a spotlight on the accuracy of American history texts in his essay "School Books and International Prejudices."* (History was, of course, the main branch of the social studies then presented in the schools.) Hart pointed out that the treatment of Anglo-American relations, especially the American Revolution and the War of 1812, commonly included materials of doubtful historical authenticity and that the total picture created was calculated to encourage unreasoned hatred of the British.

During World War I, one of the first efforts at systematic analysis of the treatment of a particular topic in a large group of textbooks was made. The topic, following up Hart's essay, was the American Revolution. Charles Altschul, a New York businessman, was the author of this study. He examined the treatment of the American Revolution in forty history textbooks that had been used in the schools two decades previously and the treatment of the same topic in some fifty texts that were in use in 1917, the date of his study. Much of his published report consists of quotations from the various texts that he had examined. His conclusions substantiated Hart's

*Richard M. Pearson, in an article entitled "Can Textbooks Be Subversive?" (THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN, XXXIII, January, 1952, p. 250) suggests six questions that will help a teacher, a parent, or other interested citizens to make a fair examination of a particular textbook.

*Albert Bushnell Hart, SCHOOL BOOKS AND INTERNATIONAL PREJUDICES, New York, American Association for International Conciliation, 1911. For fuller description of this study and those of the 1920's and 1930's, see I. James Quillen, TEXTBOOK IMPROVEMENT AND INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING, Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1948.

criticisms of textbook treatment of the American Revolution, for Altschul gave evidence to show that the treatment in a majority of the texts was biased against the British. He recognized that great improvement had come in the amount of information given about the Revolution in many texts, but urged further steps to eliminate bias.

At the end of World War I the novelist Owen Wister took up the cause of Anglo-American friendship in school textbooks. Basing his writing on Altschul's study, Wister published first a magazine article and then a book in which he demanded revision of school texts to include more accurate accounts of Anglo-American relations. Partly as a result of such demands and partly as a result of the improved status of American historical scholarship in general, the numerous revisions of texts that were made after World War I, in order to include an account of that war, also brought more impartial treatments of the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812. The significant point, in relation to textbook improvement, was that higher standards of accuracy in school texts were being urged. Events and the tone of the times caused Anglo-American relations to be a major focus of these efforts.

Soon the wave of nationalism and fear of radicalism which swept over the country in the early 1920's brought a reaction. Persons caught up in it objected to the revised accounts of Anglo-American relations. The Hearst papers took up the crusade against the new interpretations, and the same general types of episodes that have become familiar since World War II were enacted in various communities—textbooks were attacked and in some cases thrown out of schools because the accounts were "too friendly" to Britain (with no attention paid to statements by the American Historical Association defending the historical accuracy of the accounts).

In spite of this period of reaction, however, there were definite gains in the accuracy and impartiality of history textbooks through the period from World War I to the days of the great depression. Pierce's study* indicated that textbook authors were increasingly attempting to present more than one side of a question in their interpretations. A study of the treatment of wars in American history textbooks, made by Arthur Walworth in the late 1930's, showed that the "drum and trumpet" type of account had to a great extent given way to more impartial treatment which reflected the findings of recent scholarship. A number of other studies of the treatment of particular topics in textbooks were made during the 1930's. Some of the topics examined were the League of Nations, immigration, World War I, Latin-American relations, China, the Philippine Islands, and Japan.* American educators, we may conclude, were displaying a growing interest in the study of textbook content—its accuracy and adequacy—as a means for improving social studies textbooks.

*Bessie L. Pierce, CIVIC ATTITUDES IN AMERICAN SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1930.

Studies Made Since 1940

During the 1940's and early 1950's, through the leadership or cooperation of the American Council on Education, five comprehensive studies of particular topics in social studies textbooks were carried out. These studies, respectively, were concerned with the Far East,* Canada,** Latin America,*** intergroup relations,*# and agencies of international cooperation.**#

*American Council on Education, Report of the Committee on Asiatic Studies. TREATMENT OF ASIA IN AMERICAN TEXTBOOKS, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1946.

**American Council on Education, Report of the Canada-United States Committee on Education. A STUDY OF NATIONAL HISTORY TEXTBOOKS USED IN THE SCHOOLS OF CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1947.

***American Council on Education, Report of the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects. LATIN AMERICA IN SCHOOL AND COLLEGE TEACHING MATERIALS. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

*#American Council on Education, Report of the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials in Intergroup Relations. INTERGROUP RELATIONS IN TEACHING MATERIALS. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1949.

**#Dorothy McClure, THE TREATMENT OF INTERNATIONAL AGENCIES IN SCHOOL HISTORY TEXTBOOKS IN THE UNITED STATES, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1950. Prepared for the United States National Commission for UNESCO under the joint sponsorship of the American Council on Education and the U. S. Office of Education.

In each study, an effort was made to identify and analyze the most widely used textbooks. A quantitative analysis of each book was made to determine the percentage of the total material that was devoted to the topic which was the focus of the study. The material devoted to the particular topic was examined with reference to such questions as these: Is the treatment accurate? Is it objective? Is it a balanced

*See Chapter III, Quillen, *op. cit.*

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treatment. Is it adequate for purposes of instruction at the intended age level? Are the illustrations accurate? Appropriate? Effective?

The conclusions and recommendations given in various studies made such points as these: In general, the accounts were reasonably accurate, so far as the facts that were given were concerned. However, there were serious errors of omission in the treatment of several of these topics, with the result that students were likely to build highly inaccurate impressions about the people or the topic involved. The dangers of stereotyped descriptions and pictures were pointed out in several of the studies. In one case, the study of Canadian materials in history textbooks, the authors of the study suggested specific content concerning the topic that should be included in textbook accounts. In another, the study of the treatment of international agencies, the author of the study attempted to ascertain what understandings about the topic the pupil was likely to develop from the material he would find in history textbooks, and what other understandings might properly be developed through text accounts.

Some of the textbook studies sponsored by the American Council on Education, in cooperation with other groups, are now ten years old. They have undoubtedly influenced social studies textbooks produced in the interim. The conclusions and recommendations of these extensive analyses have a continuing usefulness, however, for all those concerned with the improvement of social studies textbooks—teachers, lay citizens, authors, publishers, etc. Many of the recommendations still need to be effectively implemented. They point out weaknesses and suggest, either directly or by implication, some needed improvements. In preparing a new book or revising an old one, authors and publishers should take these suggestions into account. In adopting new textbooks, or placing texts on an "approved" list, individual teachers and those serving on textbook committees should use as one basis of selection the degree to which a particular text measures up to the recommendations contained in the studies. Teachers must apply the criteria developed in the studies to each book they are considering since, as noted, in none of the studies were particular books approved or condemned. To the extent to which they do this, teachers can make a better choice among the available books. At the same time, by being able to show that the text selected meets criteria developed in authoritative studies, they will safeguard themselves against attack from irresponsible groups who attempt to discredit a school—or an individual within the school—by denouncing the texts used therein. A third result teachers may expect from utilizing the recommendations of the studies in selecting textbooks is that authors and publishers will be more vigorous in their efforts to prepare texts that will meet the criteria proposed in the studies.

It is impossible, because of space limitations, to list here the recommendations of each of the studies that have been mentioned. It is feasible, however, to suggest some general criteria derived from the studies that teachers and administrators may apply in determining the acceptability of a particular social studies textbook.

Criteria for Textbook Selection

1. Is the account accurate and up-to-date? Does it reflect the most recent scholarship permitted by the date of publication? The teacher may apply this criterion by examining the treatment of a topic in which he has particular competence and by comparing the content under one of the topics with the treatment of the same topic in a systematic textbook analysis.

2. Is the material presented in a manner that enables students to develop concepts and understandings effectively? Or does the account simply present an assortmnt of facts without regard to psychological factors involved in building concepts? Are techniques for establishing relationships utilized effectively—overviews, summaries, cross references between text and illustrations and between different parts of the text, etc.? (Overuse or pointless use of such techniques may hinder the development of concepts, it should be remembered.)

3. Is there a balance between generalizations and specific examples? Are the specifics used to explain and make meaningful the general statements? It is obvious that no textbook, because of space problems, can be written entirely in specifics from which the student can form all the generalizations about social affairs that he needs; it is equally obvious that generalizations alone, without supporting specifics to explain and exemplify them, are likely to have little meaning for the pupil.

4. Are there definitions or explanations of terms which may be difficult or unfamiliar to the average reader of the grade level involved? Certainly the student must encounter new words, or words that he already knows with new meanings, if his vocabulary is to grow. But the textbook author has a responsibility to help the reader enlarge his vocabulary by giving definitions, either straightforwardly or through context, and by illustrating terms that are likely to be new to the pupil.

5. To what extent is the material humanized or personalized? The degree of student interest, and probably understanding, is directly related to the extent to which he can identify himself with the persons being discussed or can see that the events recounted have a definite effect on his own life or the lives of people like himself. One of the major criticisms of social studies textbooks has been their highly factual, almost catalogic nature. A certain

(Continued on page 28)

Beulah Helen Beers is a Grade Four teacher in Buffalo, New York. From 1933 to '34 she taught rural school in Lancaster, N. Y. and from 1934 to '35 in Amherst, N. Y. Although a career in nursing was Miss Beers' first ambition, she now feels that "teaching" has embodied nursing and so much more.

Since 1942 ***Grace B. Coffin*** has taught General Science in the seventh and eighth grades in Bangor, Maine. In addition to her many community activities, she is a member of the National Education Association and the National Science Teachers Association. She is doing graduate work summers at the University of Maine. Five children and now nine grandchildren, traveling, genealogy and needlework comprise Mrs. Coffin's spare time activities.

IMPROVING SOCIAL STUDIES TEXTBOOKS was written by ***Dorothy McClure Fraser,*** Assistant Professor of Education at New York City College. Among other positions, Dr. Fraser was a social studies specialist at the United States Office of Education from 1948-1950. She has contributed to the yearbooks of the National Council for the Social Studies, and various other publications. Dr. Fraser is president of the National Council for the Social Studies (a department of NEA).

A Grade Five teacher and Assistant Principal in the Francis Parker School in Quincy, Massachusetts, ***Isabelle Marentz*** has had several articles already published in educational journals. In 1952 she received the Freedom Foundation Library award and honor medal for outstanding achievement in bringing about a better understanding of the American way of life. In 1953 she received the Freedom Foundation Principal award and, for the teaching of aviation, she was one of the winners of the 50th anniversary of Powered Flight Contest sponsored by the aviation industry.

Jonathon C. McLendon is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Education at Duke University. The Editor of the Tarheel Social Studies Bulletin, he has had several articles and book reviews published in educational periodicals. Dr. McLendon has traveled all parts of the United States and has spent time in North Africa and Italy during World War II as a member of the Air Force. He hopes to find more time for writing, especially European or world history material. He is also interested in secondary education and student teacher supervision.

Everett G. Thistle has been associated with the Tewksbury, Massachusetts Public Schools since 1947 in the capacity of principal. He received the Doctor of Education degree in school administration from Boston University in 1954.

Roy DeVerl Willey is a Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Utah. From 1938 to '48 he was Supervisor of Student-Teachers in the Elementary Education Dept. of San Jose College in California. Previously he was Superintendent of Schools in Byron, Wyoming. Dr. Willey has had two books published: *Radio in Elementary Education* (1948) and *Guidance in Elementary Education* (1952).

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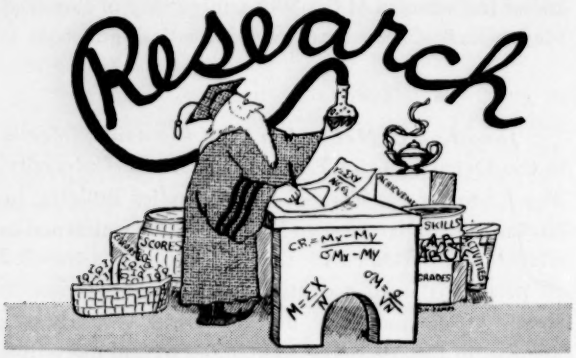

Research On Homework

Esther J. Swenson, James C. Cost, and Greene Y. Taylor
University of Alabama

The question is often raised, "Do you believe in homework?" Many Americans, on the other hand, from the primary grades through various stages of adulthood might never ask this question but would still be quite willing and eager to answer it with an emphatic "Yes" or "No." Considering the amount and sometimes the intensity of discussions of the homework which is assigned to pupils by teachers in our schools, it is surprising that research evidence concerning it is so limited.

Let us assume at the outset that the question about "believing" in homework is rather superficial. Whether one does or does not "believe" in homework, one ought to have some evidence to support the position taken with regard to it. One ought to know the bases upon which the belief rests.

When Otto summarized research evidence for the 1950 *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, he said: "The gist of the research evidence is none too favorable to assigned homework. Questionnaires to pupils, parents, and educators have shown that pupils and parents are in favor of homework but that educators do not believe so strongly in it." (7, p. 380) He reported further:

> Researches at the elementary-school level show: (a) there is a very small relationship between the amount of time spent in home study and pupil progress; (b) homework is not significantly related to achievement as measured by teachers' marks or standardized tests; (c) homework at the elementary-school level has a slight positive relationship to success in high school; (d) voluntary homework has about as many values as compulsory homework; (e) the benefits of assigned homework are too small to counterbalance the disadvantages, especially for pupils in poor homes; (f) compulsory homework does not result in sufficiently improved academic accomplishments to justify the retention of the "achievement argument" as the chief justification for home-study assignments. (7, pp. 380-81)

In the same volume of research studies, Carr, Wesley, and Murra referred to home study in their discussion of instruction in the social studies. They said, "The value of class study as compared with home study has been demonstrated in nearly all investigations of the problem. The evidence here is more convincing than on almost any other conclusion from experimental comparisons of method." (3, p. 1230)

The above quotations are typical of reports to 1950. While an occasional study such as the one by Anderson (1) with two groups of eighth grade students seemed to indicate slight advantages associated with home study, most of the research before the stated date has been unfavorable to homework. One must, of course, recognize that "homework" in the typical study was of a rather routine nature—arithmetic examples to complete, spellings to be memorized, or other drill type materials.

Recent Research

Four reports on the homework problem, published in the 1950's, may be cited as typical of the present situation so far as research is concerned.

McGill (6) conducted a study to find out the effects of homework on (a) achievement in social studies abilities and (b) achievement in the specific subjects: economics and American history and government. He designated 16 classes at John Adams High School in New York City as either experimental or control groups.

None of the differences obtained from testing social studies abilities (by the Cooperative Test of Social Studies Abilities, Experimental Form Q) was statistically significant. The economics classes which did homework had higher mean scores than the non-homework classes on the Cooperative Economics Test. In the first term, the homework classes had higher mean scores on the Cooperative American History Test but for the second term the non-homework group had higher mean scores. The differences were not statistically significant.

McGill states that in the field of high school social studies it makes no difference whether homework is assigned or not, either in social studies abilities or in achievement test scores.

Schiller (8) has reported a questionnaire study of junior high school students' reactions to homework assignments. Qualified approval of homework was indicated by approximately one-third of the boys, one-half of the girls, or three-sevenths (43%) of the student population in the school (not named in the article).

Many of the replies to the *kind* of homework assignment reported as most helpful centered around the school subject in which the students regarded homework as most helpful. An interesting sidelight is provided by the fact that mathematics homework received the highest response as being helpful, with 41% of mention by pupils, but mathematics homework was also cited by only 18% as being the most enjoyable homework. Results such as these do not seem to provide conclusive support either for or against homework.

Collins (4) conducted a thorough survey of opinions of parents, children, and teachers with regard

to homework in a 12-grade school at Brookwood, Alabama. She used personal interviews which followed a rather extensive interview guide, interviewing 135 children and 85 parents selected as a random sample of the population and 23 teachers in the school. The interview guide had parallel sets of questions for parents, teachers, and pupils so that responses of the three groups could be compared with regard to: 1) types of homework assignments, 2) amount of help required by children with these assignments, 3) amount of time spent on them, 4) conditions for home study, 5) attitudes toward homework, and 6) the value, if any, of assigned homework.

From the mass of data which she collected, Collins drew several conclusions regarding the homework situation in the particular school area which she studied. The following quotations are selected from among her results and conclusions:

> Homework assignments were made to the children at every grade level, according to the parents, teachers, and children. . . . The children reported more types of homework assignments than parents or teachers and the teachers reported a few more types than parents. . . . The traditional types of homework were dominant in most of the subjects taught at Brookwood. . . . There were 7 types of teacher assigned homework that were reported by 50 or more parents, pupils, and teachers. These types in order were: 1. reading assignment in textbook (social studies), 2. working arithmetic examples using one or more of the fundamental processes, 3. preparing book reports (English), 4. writing answers to questions (social studies), 5. working arithmetic problems involving one or more of the fundamental processes, 6. writing answers to questions (science), and 7. studying words in the spelling textbook. It will be noted that all of these are conventional types of homework. . . . More types of homework were assigned to the children in social studies than in any other subject. . . . There was no consistent increase in the number of types of homework reported from grade level to grade level in most subjects. More types of homework were reported by the parents, children and teachers at the junior high school level than any other level in most of the subjects. . . . Vocational home economics was the only subject in which the teacher and the children reported exactly the same types of homework. The types of homework reported seemed to be very closely related to the class work and were based on gaining experience at home in the principles taught in class. . . . The children . . . did a variety of types of unassigned homework.
>
> According to parents and children, most of the parents helped the children with their homework. However, a majority of the teachers reported that they did not believe that the parents helped the children. . . . A majority of the children and practically all the parents reported that no one did the homework for the children, but half of the teachers reported that the homework of some of the children in their rooms was done by some one other than the child it was assigned to.
>
> The median (daily) time spent according to children and teachers was 30 minutes. The median time according to parents' reports was 60 minutes. . . . The children of the upper elementary grades reported a higher average amount of home study than at any other level . . . twice as much as the median time at any other level. . . . According to the children's and parents' responses, the parents spent on the average from 12 to 17 minutes daily helping children with their homework. However, the majority of the teachers believe that parents do not need to spend any time helping. . . . The children's responses indicated that about half of them have the reference materials that they need. . . . Some teachers pointed out that the children had material to do the homework they did assign, but that if children really had reference materials at home the teacher would make different types of assignments.
>
> Most of the parents and all of the teachers reported that the children needed some instruction in how to study. However, 38 per cent of parents of children at lower elementary level reported that the children did not need help on how to study. This is startling! . . . In the discussion of attitudes toward homework more children at the senior high school level expressed a dislike for or dissatisfaction with homework than at any other levels. . . . Children at this level may have more outside activities. . . . Perhaps they are better able to evaluate the homework.
>
> The children's responses indicated that with the exception of eleven cases, the homework assigned did not encourage the children to be dishonest and the parents' replies agreed with the children. However, when the question of dishonesty was asked in relation to other children, only 1/5 of the children reported that homework did not cause other children to be dishonest and slightly less than half of the parents reported that homework did not cause children other than their own to be dishonest. . . . The four types (of homework) listed by most people as being most helpful were also listed by the largest number of people as being least helpful.

Collins points out that the disagreement on various questions is an indication of the need for joint study of homework problems so that parents, teachers, and children can come to understand one another's views and work toward a cooperative improvement of the situation.

A recent study by Brimm fits very well with Collins' suggestion. He tells how the faculty at the Teachers College High School of Cedar Falls, Iowa worked on the problem of home study. Administrators, teachers, pupils, and parents worked on the problem. "Parents of junior high school pupils were, as a group, less receptive to outside assignments than were the parents of senior high school students." (2, p. 53)

Brimm prefers to use the term "out-of-class assignments" rather than "home study" and to include extra-curricular activities such as helping with the school annual or practicing football.

While no general agreement was reached, a faculty committee did work out recommendations, as follows:

> Teachers may decide whether they wish to as-

sign out of class study or not. In general, assignments should be less time consuming in junior high school with increasingly more difficult assignments being made as the pupils progress through grades 9 to 12. Assignments need not be made to keep students busy and should not be made as punishment. (2, p. 54)

Need for Additional Research

Whether one considers the older studies (before 1950) or the four more recent studies summarized above, it is apparent that additional research evidence is needed on the whole question of homework. Certainly there is no conclusive evidence from achievement test results or other achievement records to justify the persisting faith of many persons in the merits of routine homework. Certainly surveys of opinions concerning homework reveal persistent disagreements among pupils, teachers, and parents.

Perhaps the first step in improving the situation is a reconsideration by everyone concerned of what is meant by "homework." Some people suggest that a new term is needed because of the conflicting uses of the old term. Willett, for example, prefers "supplemental work." He also suggests criteria for recommended "supplemental work," as follows:

> (1) Homework should be clearly understood by the pupils, not brand new work.
> (2) It should be of a nature pupils have reasonable chance to perform without help but should recognize the value of discussion and shared experiences in the home.
> (3) It should be reasonable in relation to the time required.
> (4) It should involve valuable practice and/or experience for the individual child as contrasted with mechanical "busy" work such as 20 arithmetic problems.
> (5) It should be planned to encourage pupils to work independently and to develop the desire and ability to perform on a high level. (9, p. 17)

Jacobs has also suggested some characteristics of a modern program of homework. He says that in such a program children are encouraged to carry on independent work in the home environment. ". . . the aim is to guide children into learnings that interrelate the in-school and out-of-school doings of boys and girls." (5, p. 77) The teacher plans for and with the children concerning their independent work instead of assigning uniform study tasks. A parent may be a co-worker with the child under this plan. The home environment has many potentialities for effective learning experiences which are not repetitious of classroom work. "The teacher, furthermore, finds the appropriate times and ways to use the results of children's independent homework." (5, p. 79) Because the school is responsible for helping the child develop effective work habits and independence and because the school needs to keep parents informed of its goals for teaching work habits, a cooperative study of out-of-school activities in which children engage might well be made by the school staff.

Further research on homework, then, might well begin with cooperative definition of what it is. The suggestions by Willett and Jacobs seem to be in line with a commendable shift in the meaning of the term.

Such redefinition of homework should be a worthwhile study in itself. As further investigation is made, this redefinition process will continue. Along with it, however, such fundamental questions as these might well be studied by parents, teachers, and pupils:

1. What does homework do for the child? What purpose does it serve for him? What does he learn from doing it? (It is assumed that answers to these questions would include knowledge, skills, attitudes, work habits, or any other learnings.)
2. What do the children do with their time if they are not doing homework? What advantages or disadvantages does homework have for the child as it is contrasted with other activities?
3. To what extent and under what circumstances does the home provide the best time, the best place, and the best general conditions for learning what is to be learned from the homework activity?
4. Are the results of home study commensurate with the investment of time and energy by pupils and parents?

Attempts to answer questions such as these about homework might very well be made in an action research type of study in which faculty, parents, and children participate. The door is wide open for any researcher or group of researchers who will undertake such a study. The professional literature provides no record of any such study; the teaching profession, the lay public and, most of all, the pupils in our schools stand to benefit greatly by such an approach.

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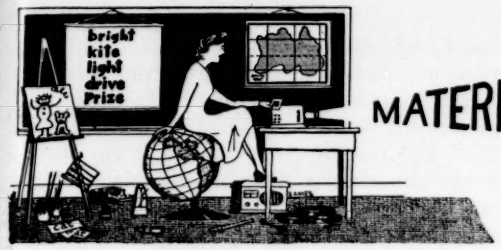

MATERIALS

Professor Larry Argiro, associate professor of art at the state teachers college at New Palz, N. Y. has devised a new material for crafts. It is called ***Girostone,*** and is made of a mixture of vermiculite (used for potting bulbs), cement, and sand. Four parts of vermiculite, one part of cement, a little sand. Mix well, with enough water to form a thick paste. Pour into a cardboard box, let set for three days, and it's ready to carve. Use a kitchen knife, even a strong spoon. Finish with a rasp or file. A coping saw will cut out the big curves. See *Popular Mechanics,* January 1955, page 151 for pictures.

Send to General Electric Company, One River Road, Schenectady 5, New York for the first ***five booklets*** for 1955: they may be ordered in quantity for your classes, and they are free.

ROMANCE OF ELECTRICITY tells the story of electricity from the ultimate source, the sun, to its varied applications in home and industry. Nontechnical in its explanations, it gives the how and the why of generators, transformers, fuses, electron tubes, and the many other components which working together give us our electrical living.

MOTORS MAKE THE WORLD GO ROUND explains how the electric motor has become mankind's drudge . . . how it works . . . and how to build one with "tin" from a tin can and a few lengths of wire.

ELECTRICITY AROUND US (cartoon) is the story of a science teacher's assignment: to list 100 applications of electricity in the home.

NETWORK OF POWER (cartoon) is the blending of narration and exposition: how electricity moves from powerhouse to consumer.

ADVENTURE INTO THE FUTURE (comic book) is the cartoon continuity treatment of "Why Look into Engineering?" —one of the essays in the recently offered General Electric's Answer to THREE WHY'S.

Experiments With Gas, containing 29 simple projects, is suitable for the upper grades or for the junior high school. Among the experiments are: Making Gas from Coal, Heat Treating Steel, and Reading a Gas Meter. Free, compliments of your local gas company, from Educational Service Bureau, American Gas Association, 420 Lexington Ave., New York 17. On your school letterhead, enough for a whole class.

Plastic 3¼ x 4 (standard) lantern slides which can be drawn on with ink, pencil, or special colored crayons, are fine for use in assemblies. Young people will talk freely about something they have *made,* when to get up before an audience and just "give a report" is often torture to both speaker and audience, during the learning stage at least. Send to Slidecraft Company, South Orange, New Jersey, for information about the slides and the crayons.

Patent Applied For, a book of silly or not so silly inventions, like the 12-man bicycle for the Dutch army, or the Alaskan railroad that was held up by balloons. BUT, there are some good problem solving situations here, that will challenge children's imaginations, and stimulate discussion. F. Coppersmith and J. J. Lynx, Press and Publicity, Ltd. London. About $3.

Elementary School Teacher Education, a new film series, should by now be in your local rental library and your state department of education library of films. One group of two films: *Each Child is Different,* and *Discovering Individual Differences.* Write to McGraw-Hill, Text-Film Department, 330 West 42nd Street, New York 36.

Thousands of Science Projects, a list of science fair and science exhibit ideas, is part of the very fine kit of materials sent out free by Science Clubs of America, Science Service, 1719 N St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

Methods of Conducting a Science Fair, 15 pages, also includes many projects. A scoring key to be used by judges, and suggested methods of displaying materials are included. Free from Cambosco Scientific Company, 37 Antwerp Street, Brighton 35, Mass.

The Learning Process is the latest of the booklets on "What Research Says to the Teacher." By William Clark Trow, of the School of Education, University of Michigan. It has as its major headings:

What Do We Learn?
When Are Children Ready To Learn?
What Is THE Right Answer?
What Do Children See?
Why Is Practice Necessary?
How Do Children Learn To Think?
Can Children Use What They Have Learned?

So much is packed into 33 pages, and it is so helpful for both experienced and inexperienced teachers. Single copies, 25 cents. NEA.

How Can Citizens Help Their Schools has been mentioned in these columns before. But the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45th St., New York 36, N. Y., has other titles, free like the one above.

How Can We Organize For Better Schools?
How Have Our Schools Developed?
How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?
How Can We Help Our School Boards?

They also have free sound films on the same subjects, which can be borrowed without charge.

(Continued from page 14)

the meanings half-clear. Additional audio-visual materials integrated with classroom discussion establishes relationships between experience and generalizations.

THE IMPORTANCE OF ATTITUDES

The effect of experience as it determines learning need not be expressed in words. The real test of education is behavior, not verbal expression. The modern school, therefore, has come to regard the formation of interests and attitudes as even more significant than the acquisition of skills, facts, and information. Furthermore, the acquisition or change of attitude is not a haphazard affair nor in the same direction for all who have had the same experience. Even without the guidance of a teacher the child generally selects from his experience that which is consonant with his needs and aims. Thus, it follows that differing experiential backgrounds cause students to perceive in quite different ways that which will influence his interest and attitude. We have, then, a process of interchange and integration between that which is perceived and the attitudes and interests which govern perception.

Because something beyond simple intellectual appeal is needed in school learnings audio-visual materials are essential adjuncts to the curriculum. Attitudes and interests can either be re-inforced or changed by careful use and selection of materials of learning.

Summary

An ideal curriculum for children, adolescents, and adults is one in which individuals are given adequate guidance, needs are adequately met, individual abilities are developed without dominance, mental health is improved, and security is established. An audio-visual curriculum should integrate learning experiences, make these experiences real and meaningful, and develop well-rounded personalities. Mechanical time-breaks will be avoided and formal patterns are non-existent; good citizens are developed, patterns are provided for exchange of ideas, responsibility is assumed—in short, skills of living in a democracy are adequately acquired.

The experience conception of the curriculum should be employed as a guide in developing all phases of the program. All aspects of the educational needs of the community should be served, and the various activities interrelated so as to supplement one another. Above all, the curriculum should provide for the definition and continuous refinement of the conception of democratic goals.

Tools of learning are an integral part of the curriculum. The only justification for the introduction of audio-visual materials of learning is the resulting improvement of pupil experiences. Educational outcomes must be better than before.

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NEW BOOKS

Your Child and His Art

There is enthusiasm and enlightenment to be gained from reading the simple, clear way. Dr. Lowenfeld in his new book *Your Child and His Art*[1] talks to parents as a parent, who is also a psychologist and an art educator. He talks to them about understanding and helping their children through their art expressions using typical questions they have asked him over a period of years. Three types of children, "the free, less free, or inhibited, . . . who show these personality characteristics in their creative work," are carried through the book appearing under different age level groups and different questions. The frequent examples of childrens' work are from a wide area.

Although he has aimed the title at parents, the book will help classroom and, even art teachers, to be more intelligent in the ways they use to help children with their art. It will surely help adults who have emotional problems similar to those of the children, whether parents or not.

These ways of helping are positive, starting with the present state of the child in a loving and happy home as the basis of departure. Putting oneself in the child's place in order to understand his needs; motivation through questions that stimulate him to think and bring out his own ideas instead of doing his thinking for him; providing good and adequate art materials and a place to use them are some of the techniques used to bring about personality adjustments. Fallacies in ways of helping are exposed such as, insisting on visual appearances instead of the expression of the reality of the child's feeling about an experience which may involve a distortion of appearances.

He traces the positive and negative states and stages of child growth from scribbling to concept, through the beginning of establishing relationships between self and environment, color-object and spatial relationships, to social independence, group life and sex interests with art as the balance wheel. He shows how the characteristics of a child's drawing correspond to his behavior and how his behavior affects his drawing. Adjustments to a democratic society can follow an adjustment in personality through creative art activities.

Various vocational possibilities in art are described for the parent's guidance in dealing with a gifted child.

The word aesthetic is mentioned only once, possibly because the book is addressed to laymen, possibly because art and life are one. One statement stands out somewhat as a contradiction. After placing the responsibility directly on parents for making the child more sensitive toward his environment which will result in satisfying art expressions, he says, in effect, that there is very little that can be brought out in a child if he has not grown up in a sensitive environment. This may be but over-emphasis of the challenge.

If they have not done so already, those who read this book will wish to read two of Dr. Lowenfeld's earlier books. "The Nature of Creative Activity" (1938) is a fascinating account of the art work of blind children. "Creative and Mental Growth" (r.e. 1952) is widely read and acclaimed as a textbook on art education. He says of it himself in "Your Child And His Art" that it is "a careful account of the changes with which the child expresses his experiences and their meaning for personality growth."

Reviewed by Ruth R. Herring
State Teachers College
Framingham, Mass.

Adventuring in Home Living

Adventuring in Home Living[2] is the first of a series of three to be published by Dr. Hazel M. Hatcher, Professor of Home Economics Education and Home-Community Relations at Pennsylvania State University and Mildred E. Andrews, Homemaker and Child Guidance Specialist. Book I is designed as a beginning text in homemaking education for young adolescents in the 7th, 8th and 9th grades. It should serve equally as well as a reference for teachers of homemaking since it suggests a methodology which is in keeping with educationally sound present-day philosophy and practices.

It is written in the vocabulary of the young teenagers. Actual situations which involve other teen-agers, their parents, friends and teachers are presented in story form and made more interesting by the use of actual conversation. From these situations, the students are given guidance in identifying their own problems, setting personal goals, cooperatively planning group goals and learning experiences they and their friends and families might have, and evaluating their development.

An emphasis is placed on values in family life rather than routine problems of home management, though manipulative skills are recognized as being tools for developing better home life consistent with values, attitudes and beliefs desirable in a democratic society. The stories or situations presented represent families of different social and economic backgrounds, giving students some basis for evaluating their own values and the consistency of these values. This book should help teachers to understand the scope of a family-centered program and to recognize possible approaches to use in effectively guiding students. It is one of the best to come to our attention in coordinating objectives, learning experiences, subject matter and evaluation.

(Continued on next page)

The format is attractive; the size of printing is suitable for young teen-agers; the illustrations are exceptionally attractive, meaningful and appealing.

There seems to be no reason to limit the use of this book to homemaking education classes. Suggestions are given for its use as a reference by other classes—any class group interested in developing effective members of families and other social groups.

Reviewed by Billie Williamson
Colorado A & M College
Fort Collins, Colorado

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[1] *Your Child and His Art.* Viktor Lowenfeld. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1954. $6.50.
[2] *Adventuring in Home Living.* Hazel Hatcher and Mildred Andrews. Boston. D. C. Heath and Company. 1954.

"*Your Arithmetic Bookshelf*" will help you to keep posted on recently published new or revised professional books, yearbooks, and monographs which relate to the teaching of arithmetic. That's not always an easy job, especially when years are as productive as were 1953 and 1954. Have you access to each of the following, either in your personal library or in your school library?

Content-Background Books

1. Buckingham, Burdette R. *Elementary Arithmetic: Its Meaning and Practice.* Boston: Ginn and Company, 1953. 750 p.

Professional Books

2. Brueckner, Leo J., and Foster E. Grossnickle. *Making Arithmetic Meaningful.* Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Company, 1953. 570 p.

3. Clark, John R., and Laura K. Eads. *Guiding Arithmetic Learning.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1954. 280 p.

4. Hollister, George E., and Agnes C. Gunderson. *Teaching Arithmetic in Grades I and II.* New York: D. C. Heath and Company, 1954. 168 p.

5. Morton, Robert Lee. *Teaching Children Arithmetic.* New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1953. 566 p.

6. Spitzer, Herbert F. *The Teaching of Arithmetic,* Second Edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1954. 416 p.

Professional Yearbooks (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics)

7. *Emerging Practices in Mathematics Education.* Twenty-Second Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1954. 434 p.

8. *The Learning of Mathematics: Its Theory and Practice.* Twenty-First Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1953. 355 p.

Professional Monographs

9. Glennon, Vincent J., and Students. *Arithmetic and Curriculum Organization.* Syracuse, N. Y.: School of Education, Syracuse University, 1954. 140 p.

10. Glennon, Vincent J., and Students. *Teaching Arithmetic in the Modern School.* Syracuse, N. Y.: School of Education, Syracuse University, 1953. 139 p.

11. "Helping Teachers Teach Arithmetic." *Supervisor's Exchange,* Vol. 8, No. 1. New York: Research Service Department, Silver Burdett Company, 1954. 68 p.

12. Morton, Robert Lee. *Teaching Arithmetic.* "What Research Says to the Teacher" Series, No. 2. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1953. 33p.

13. Urbancek, Joseph J. "Mathematical Teaching Aids." *Chicago Schools Journal Supplement,* Vol. 35, Nos. 3-6. Chicago: Chicago Teachers College, 1953-54. 80 p.

Professional Journal

14. *The Arithmetic Teacher.* Washington, D. C.: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

Miscellaneous

15. Dantzig, Tobias. *Number, The Language of Science,* Fourth Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1954. 340 p.

Fred Weaver
Boston University

Eye Catching Bulletin Boards

(Continued from page 7)

Telling a Story

To have a finished bulletin board it should have a title to tie the display together. A time saving method is to prepare several alphabets cut from different colored paper. Select the letters for your bulletin from an appropriate color and fasten them to the bulletin board with common pins. Instead of leaving the letters flat against the board, pull them up to the head of the pins. This gives a feeling of depth.

Pupils Should Participate

Every bulletin board doesn't need to be arranged by the teacher. Let your pupils be responsible for some of them. It's good practice and gives them a practical situation for using art and design. It also gives them a sense of belonging, of being part of the classroom. Another by-product of pupil participation is discrimination in selecting materials to be displayed.

Measuring Your Results

How can you tell whether your bulletin boards are effective or not? There are two positive ways of judging. Notice whether anyone including your class stops to look at them. The other is from the comments it will elicit. Do I hear you say, "But no one ever mentions anything about bulletin boards? They're just there." Try a new arrangement and you'll find people will stop, look, and comment.

CLEANER CORRECTIONS

One teacher used a large eraser instead of a red pencil for correcting language themes. Children invariably make a mess out of trying to erase. They often erase too much and too soon.

This teacher armed herself with a good eraser and went about the room as the children wrote. As she detected needs for capital letters, improved spelling, corrected letter formations, etc. she applied the eraser and helped the pupil decide on the needed change. In this way the first draft was better and the child was encouraged.

AN IDEA WORTH REPEATING

"Where does your father work?" That is a question asked by one teacher. The answers caused a chain reaction which launched a whole series of activities, for example:

1. Making a map of the city.
2. Locating places on the map.
3. Tracing routes traveled to work.
4. Listing means of transportation.
5. Identifying types of work.
6. Studying local industries.
7. Finding ways of making a living.
8. Studying the community, etc.

SCIENCE

Can you reconstruct the science lesson that must have taken place in the room where this chart is?

We use our noses.

We can tell by smell what these things are:

cinnamon
onion
coffee
garlic

A SPONGE

A sponge makes an excellent paint brush for putting in backgrounds like sky, grass, snow, water, etc.

Tempora paint can be used on the blackboard. It is good for lines for a chart kept over a period of time. It will not erase or harm the surface of the board, but will wash off easily with water.

WEEKLY NEWS REVIEW

In one room they summarize the news of the week in their room, run it off on the duplicator and send it home every Friday afternoon.

They may have such items as:

We know three new songs.
We had 14 perfect scores in spelling.
We are building a model fort.
We have just started fractions.

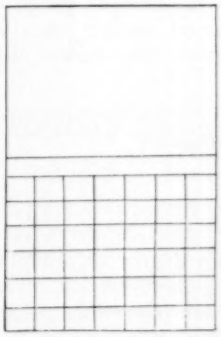
KINDERGARTEN VISITORS

In one kindergarten room the children and their teacher invited mothers to come and make doll clothes from scraps left from making little girls' dresses.

On the appointed day they spread a rug on the floor, arranged the chairs in a circle, and put the scraps, thread, needles, and scissors on a table near by with the dolls.

The mothers sat and sewed while the children went ahead with their regular routine. The mothers enjoyed the visit, felt useful, and finished the doll clothes. Each child was proud when she wore a dress made of the same material as one of the dolls.

CALENDARS



One teacher figures there are ten school months. She has 31 children, so she ran off on the duplicator 310 copies of the form at the left. At the beginning of each new month she supplied each child with a copy. He filled in the name of the month, the days of the week, and the numbers in the proper spaces. Then he added his picture at the top.

PAPER HEADINGS

Do you have an established form for heading all papers so a child will always know where to put his name, the date, and the subject? Do you insist that the form be followed in all written work?

In one room there is a chart showing the accepted form to use for all papers. It has been printed on chart paper and stays in view at all times.

From "Ideas Worth Sharing"
Department of Elementary Education
Richmond, Indiana

Send your ideas for the "Try It" page.

Address:

"Try It" Editor
Journal of Education
332 Bay State Road
Boston 15, Massachusetts

. . . Social Studies Textbooks

(Continued from page 18)

amount of anecdotal material and the use of words that suggest associations with things already familiar to the student seem desirable in texts at all levels.

6. Are the graphics interesting as well as informative? Do they supplement as well as illustrate the textual account? Do the pictures avoid stereotyped material? Are the graphics well selected for the age group that will be using the text? Are there enough graphics, by the standards of the 1950's?

7. Are the suggested activities and bibliographies useful? Do the latter contain a variety of books and pamphlets, carefully selected to provide the needed range in reading level? Do they include multisensory materials—films, filmstrips, records, etc.? Do the suggested activities include things for pupils to *do* as well as things for them to talk about? Do they provide leads into the use of community resources? Do they suggest appropriate channels for civic action, within the school and perhaps within the community?

Social studies textbooks have been improved enormously over the past generation, in physical make-up and in enrichment of content. There remains room for further improvement. Continued progress in developing more effective social studies texts is a challenge for those who prepare the books and for those who use them.

. . . Teacher Evaluation

(Continued from page 10)

No recommendation is made for including a particular item in an evaluation program. The items have been reported as having a certain degree of acceptability to the groups participating in the study. The analyses drawn from this study are offered as guides to the selection of those methods and measures of determining teacher effectiveness which would be most conducive to the formulation of an acceptable program of teacher evaluation.

Any group charged with the responsibility for evolving an evaluation program should be cautioned to avoid those items having a low degree of acceptability and should interpret the degree of acceptability of any measure or method in the light of conditions prevailing in its local situation. The success or failure of any program for teacher evaluation may well be determined by the degree of acceptability of its provisions to the teachers, staff members other than teachers, and the lay people concerned with such a program.

*The degree of acceptability of the items in the inquiry form was indicated on a five point scale. An index of acceptability was obtained by computing the percentage of possibility. The percentage of possibility is the quotient of the sum of the scores by all judges divided by the largest possible score by all judges. For convenience the per cent sign is dropped and the quotient multiplied by 100 to clear of decimals.

Old World Backgrounds and the World of Today

(Continued from page 6)

Age of discovery. The thrilling exploits of fifteenth and sixteenth century European sailors could be an opening for discussion of improved means of transportation, similar to the treatment of communication just described. Another activity for utilizing the Age of Discovery in relation to the contemporary world is sociodrama, or extemporaneous dramatization. One small group of pupils may be asked to assume the roles of travelers, sailors, or other explorers of the early 1500's. Another group may portray a committee of present-day explorers or geographers. Each group can discuss "Unexplored Parts of the World." The class should easily conclude that much of the world was still unknown in 1500 and that nearly all parts of the world have since been explored.

A Note on Materials

The foregoing paragraphs have mentioned several kinds of useful materials. Because it is sometimes difficult to find sixth-grade level materials that deal with current affairs, mention of some other sources of information may be helpful. The materials cited here often furnish historical background as well as descriptions of contemporary problems and issues.

Current events papers especially designed for elementary school pupils include feature articles dealing with current affairs. A classroom file of past issues will prove useful. The teacher can keep a list of the topics of each week's feature articles in order to locate the proper issue later.

Encyclopedias, almanacs, and other reference books serve as helpful sources of information for both pupils and teachers. A great number and variety of pamphlets furnish information about current world affairs. Perhaps the most practicable listing of such pamphlets is the *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials.* The guide also lists suitable audio-visual aids.

Natural and human resources of one's own community constitute easily available and inexpensive aids to learning. The study of Man's activities and use of resources in the past becomes more meaningful when they are compared and contrasted with known activities of the present. A local bank and corner grocery store may furnish examples of economic activities basically the same as, but grown far more complex than, those of long ago. Knowledge of local government will help in understanding the governments of the Greeks and the Romans. Knowing the schools and other cultural institutions of today provides a basis for sensing more fully Man's progress through the ages.

COUNSELING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

By GLENN E. SMITH

Chief of the Guidance Services Division, Michigan Department of Public Instruction

This new text considers the counseling function in secondary schools as the key point of the guidance program. This overview of counseling and its supporting services is designed to give prospective counselors, practicing counselors having limited counseling experience, administrators, and teachers a complete description of the counseling service in operation in the school setting. *Published February, 1955. 366 pages. $4.25.*

GUIDING GROWTH IN READING:

In the Modern Elementary School

By MARGARET G. MCKIM

Professor of Education, University of Cincinnati

A description and discussion of the comprehensive reading program in its total classroom setting, covering both direct instruction with basal reading materials and the instruction that accompanies other classroom activities where reading is an integral part. The detailed concrete illustrations and suggestions will be valuable to both the novice and the experienced teacher. *Ready in March.*

STATISTICS IN EDUCATION

By MERLE W. TATE

Associate Professor of Education, University of Pennsylvania

A comprehensive treatment of the meaning and proper use of descriptive statistics. The early introduction and informal treatment of sampling notions lead into a logical and rigorous discussion of sampling theory and inference. The text covers the statistical concepts and quantities currently used in the reduction and description of data and in inference. *Ready in the Spring.*

EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENT

By ROBERT M. W. TRAVERS

Research Psychologist, Air Force Personnel and Training Center, Lackland Air Force Base

A text designed to equip the student of education with the ability to appraise measurement techniques and devices, and to exercise sound judgment concerning their use. The material is presented in four sections: the concepts and functions of measurement in education, measurement of the intellectual outcomes of education, measurement of personality development and methods of predicting pupil progress. *Published February, 1955. 420 pages. $4.75.*

The Macmillan Company

60 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK 11, N. Y.